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ABSTRACT

This special journal section contains five major articles concerned with the education of children with disabilities, especially with emotional or behavioral disorders. The lead article by Ramon M. Rocha and Susan McCue, discusses the education of emotionally disturbed (ED) students in New York State as directed by the Commissioner of Education's Regulations: Part 100. The emphasis in this article is on the impact of Section 100.2(s) of the regulations relating to students with handicapping conditions on regular and special educators, as well as on the importance of a team approach to the implementation of the regulations. Resources available to teachers for facilitating this process include the Committee on Special Education, parents, building administrators, and students themselves. The next four articles are related to what to teach emotionally disturbed students and have the following titles and authors: "Social Skills for Behaviorally Disordered Children as Preparation for Mainstreaming: Theory, Practice, and New Directions" (J. Daniel Hollinger); "Include Time Management and Learning Strategies in the ED Curriculum!" (Linda Reetz and Joe Crank); "Emotionally Handicapped Students from Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Backgrounds: A Multidimensional Profile" (Debra Colley); and "Parent Involvement in Special Education" (Donald Marozas). (DB)

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EXCELLENCE IN EDUCATION
FOCUS ON THE SPECIAL CHILD
–JOURNAL WITHIN A JOURNAL–

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EXCELLENCE IN EDUCATION – FOCUS ON THE SPECIAL CHILD

GUEST EDITORIAL

by Ramon M. Rocha

The 1988 ANYSEED Conference theme addresses key areas related to the education of students who have special needs due to emotional disturbance. The articles presented were selected because they coincide with relevant conference theme topics. The lead article discusses education of emotionally disturbed students in New York State as directed by the Commissioner's Regulations: Part 100. The emphasis in this article is on the Team Approach which will be necessary by regular and special educators, the Committee on Special Education in conjunction with parents and administrators.

The next three articles are related to what to teach emotionally disturbed students. Hollinger's article stresses the importance of teaching social skills for Behaviorally Disturbed Children as a Preparation for Mainstreaming. Reetz and Crank make a plea for the inclusion of Time Management and Learning Strategies in the ED curriculum. Colley's article deals with a minority within a minority, i.e., Emotionally Handicapped Students From Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Backgrounds. The article by Marozas discusses the dilemma of Parent Involvement in Special Education through a thorough review of the literature.

There are no easy solutions to the topics/issues in the articles. However, each of the authors provides information that will hopefully lead the reader to evaluate his/her role in the education of emotionally disturbed students. The articles serve to link the reader with what they will hear and discuss at the ANYSEED Conference. As in past years, conference participants will be challenged while at the same time being reaffirmed. It is my hope that the articles selected will help to foster a receptive attitude towards learning about how we can better serve students who are often in conflict with themselves and their environment.

Ramon M. Rocha, Ph.D.
Guest Editor – Fall 1987

Executive Editor's Comment: Dr. Rocha is Assistant to the Vice President for Minority Affairs at the State University College of Arts and Science at Geneseo, New York. Additionally, he has been a consistently active ANYSEED conference participant at the state and local levels for the past decade.

MESSAGE FROM CONFERENCE CHAIRPERSON

– CONFERENCE UPDATE –

The 23rd Annual Anyseed Conference is rapidly approaching. The focus is based on four interrelated topics which will address contemporary issues and include the latest research in the field. The workshops are relevant, exciting and geared toward a fresh look at current happenings and future trends. A distinguished speaker will precede each workshop strand and all conference participants will have the opportunity to "Meet The Experts" during a stimulating panel question and answer forum.

Anyseed will provide a bulletin update at the conference site to alert you of last minute program changes. Register early to obtain special rates and be sure to include a photocopy of your '87-'88 membership card to take advantage of reduced rates.

I am certain that you will find the 23rd Annual Anyseed Conference to be a professionally exhilarating experience, as well as a socially enjoyable one.

Conference Chairperson
Sherry Leids

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COMMISSIONER'S REGULATIONS PART 100: A TEAM APPROACH TO IMPLEMENTATION

by Ramon M. Rocha and Susan McCue

Many advancements in the provision of programs and services for students with special needs have occurred affecting the education of handicapped students at the local, state, and national levels (P.L. 94-142 1975; Part 200 of the New York State Commissioner's Regulations 1984). While this period of growth was characterized by the improvement of services, at the same time, special and regular education developed as two separate, and at times unrelated, systems (Lilly, 1979).

New York State has sought through legislation to close the gap between regular and special education. In 1982 the New York State Board of Regents developed an Action Plan that provided a framework for the Part 100 Regulations of the Commissioner of Education. The New York State Assembly in 1984 passed the Part 100 Regulations into law creating a legal mandate that helped link regular and special education. It is this link and its relationship to emotionally disturbed students which will serve as the basis of this article.

The Part 200 Regulations had previously defined and continues to guarantee procedural steps that school districts must follow in order to assure that handicapped students are provided a "free appropriate education in the least restrictive environment." The primary purpose of the Part 100 Regulations is to insure *access* to, and *equity* of educational programs for *all* students attending school in New York State.

In order to provide appropriate educational programs for handicapped students the Part 100 and 200 Regulations must be viewed as interrelated and implemented in conjunction with one another. However, it must be emphasized that Part 100 Regulations must be exhaustively applied before a student is totally removed from regular education programs and the opportunity to achieve a high school diploma. In addition, the education of ED students in residential settings and self contained programs is also regulated by Part 100. In most cases the application of the Regulations will involve the coordinated efforts of regular and special educators.

Part 100 Regulations

Within the Part 100 Regulations three sections specifically relate to the education of students with handicapping conditions. They are:

Section 100.2(s)
Students with Handicapping Conditions

Students with handicapping conditions must have access to the full range of programs and services described in the Part 100 Regulations to the extent appropriate to their individual needs. In addition, instructional techniques and materials must be modified to the appropriate degree to allow students with handicapping conditions to meet diploma requirements. Committees on Special Education are required to review at least annually the appropriateness of such modifications.

Section 100.2(k)
Nondiscrimination in Curricular and Extracurricular Activities

Students with handicapping conditions are entitled to participate in curricular and extracurricular activities to the extent appropriate to their individual needs.

Section 100.6
Local Certificate

This section addresses the provision of local certificates to students with handicapping conditions. Of major significance, however, is the requirement for Boards of Education or trustees to have written policies and procedures which ensure that students with handicapping conditions are provided appropriate opportunities to earn a high school diploma.

In this article we have chosen to discuss Section 100.2(s) and the impact it has on special and regular education teachers. Our rationale for this selection is centered on the amount of planning, instructional considerations, and monitoring that will be necessary for emotionally disturbed students to receive a full range of services culminating in a Regents or local diploma.

Academic Goals

Part 100.2(s) of the Commissioner's Regulations ensures that handicapped students have access to obtaining a local or Regents diploma. However, for *each individual student* it must be determined by teachers, parents, the student, and the Committee on Special Education (CSE) how best to accommodate the student's needs. The following are examples of questions that require answers:

- What are the educational goals for the student? Will the student pursue a local or regents diploma? How will the choice selected impact on post secondary or occupational choices?
- What academic courses will the student select and what, if any, accommodations will be made to meet specific academic and social needs?
- Will there be adequate support services for the student to assist him/her in attaining specified educational goals?
- What provisions will be made for in-service training and ongoing support services for regular education teachers who will provide the academic coursework to emotionally disturbed students?
- Will the emotionally disturbed student require a form of behavior modification program and, if so, is the academic content teacher prepared to implement the program?

These and similar questions must be considered by both the special education teacher and the service delivery provider ... the regular education teacher. A justifiable criticism of mainstreaming has been that in too many cases the questions posed are not adequately addressed. Failure to recognize, and/or answer these questions, results in frustration, anger, and often thwarts what started out as good intentions. Prior to the actual placement of the emotionally handicapped student in the regular classroom, the special education teacher in consultation with parents, the student, CSE and the regular education teacher needs to address the questions and provide adequate answers to establish academic goals (Rocha, Wiley, & Watson, 1982).

Teaching/Material Modifications

Section 100.2(s) clearly states, "that instructional techniques and materials must be modified to the appropriate degree to allow students with handicapping conditions to meet diploma requirements." Questions specifically related to instruction include:

- What is the student's preferred learning style?
- What modifications if any need to be considered regarding teaching style and testing modifications?
- What evaluation procedures will be used? (i.e., report cards based on a standard curve or an Individualized Educational Plan (IEP) criterion referenced evaluation?)

Again, these questions require appropriate answers to ensure an appropriate education for ED students.

Discipline Policies

An area of concern specifically related to emotionally disturbed students is school conduct and discipline. Section 100(1) states, "each school district shall adopt and implement a written policy on school conduct and discipline designed to promote responsible student behavior." Such a policy is to be developed locally in consultation

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with teachers, administrators, other school service professionals, students, and parents (p. 8, Part 100 of the Commissioner's Regulations). Section IV is especially related to handicapped students:

> "For students identified as having handicapping conditions, such policy shall include procedures for determining when a student's conduct shall constitute a reason for referral to the Committee on the Handicapped (Committee on Special Education) for review and modification, if appropriate, of the student's individualized education program" (p. 9, part 100 of the Commissioner's Regulations).

The area of discipline as it relates to emotionally disturbed students is a complex issue. In essence school officials need to determine if a student's disruptive behavior results from his/her handicapping condition. The area of discipline demands the cooperation of parents, teachers, and administrators requiring them to establish guidelines that will ensure the welfare of the emotionally disturbed student and, at the same time, ensure the rights of peer students as well as teacher and staff.

Resources

There are several obstacles to implementing Part 100.2(s) Regulations. These obstacles include time for scheduling and planning meetings; attitudes of some teachers against handicapped students in the regular classroom; and a lack of training received by regular education teachers in meeting the needs of emotionally disturbed students who, despite their average to above average academic ability, can at times present problems which result from their emotional make-up. Also, special education teachers are not always trained to serve as consultants to their peers.

Although the resolution of the obstacles described are not easily attained there are some resources available to teachers which should be utilized to facilitate resolution. These include:

Bulding Administrators. Each administrator has access to a *Guide for Implementation of Part 100 Regulations and Special Education*. This guide is designed to assist administrators in their responsibilities for special education programs as districts move toward implementing the revised Part 100 Regulations. To successfully implement these new requirements, administrators will need to know now to plan for the coordination of special and regular education programs. In the guide, administrators are presented with suggestions for planning, and implementation of the regulations. Also, a work plan is provided that can be used to identify action to be taken, person(s) assigned to carry out the action, and provision for a time frame during which the action will be carried out. Building administrators have the responsibility of establishing and supporting programs and services necessary to implement the Part 100 Regulations.

Committee on Special Education (CSE). In the Phase I development of the IEP, considerations are given to the types of services to be received, duration of services, providers of services and related questions. The CSE is also responsible for monitoring the progress of the student. And in determining appropriate modifications and alternative testing techniques. The CSE should be regarded and utilized as a resource because of their involvement with the student and his/her parents.

Parents. Parents are perhaps the most under-utilized resource in determining education plans for their children during the IEP Phase II development. Parents can provide invaluable information about their child that is not found in a student's cumulative folder. Parents can provide information related to the expectations and goals they have for their children. Their support should be enlisted in establishing educational goals and in monitoring service delivery and fulfillment of goals and overall school policies that affect emotionally disturbed children.

Student. Emotionally disturbed individuals are described in the literature to have average to above average intellectual ability (Commissioner's Regulations, 1985). They often are ignored as a valuable resource in determining their educational program. It would be highly beneficial if these students were consulted as to their long range goals, vocational aspirations, and personal interests. This information would be useful in mapping out the student's academic program. Initially, getting the student to provide this information in a serious vein may prove difficult. However, with the establishment of rapport, long term observation, and academic assessment the student with the teacher's help can help to identify the student's abilities and ways to utilize them to achieve his/her maximum potential.

Conclusion

Emotionally disturbed students are entitled to access to the full range of programs and services that lead to meeting diploma requirements. This article has addressed some of the concerns and presented suggestions for resolving these concerns. In order to provide an appropriate education for emotionally disturbed students, a team approach to implementation of the Part 100 Regulations is essential.

Submitted by:
Ramon M. Rocha, Assistant to the Vice President for Minority Affairs and Susan McCue, SETRC Coordinator for Livingston-Steuben-Wyoming BOCES.

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Getting out a journal is fun, but it's no picnic.

If we print jokes, people say we are silly;

If we don't, they say we are too serious.

If we clip things from other magazines, we are too lazy to write them ourselves;

If we don't, then they say that we are too proud of our own stuff.

If we don't print contributions, we don't appreciate true genius;

If we do print them, the page is filled with junk.

Now, very likely, someone will say that we swiped this from someone else—WE DID!

SOCIAL SKILLS FOR BEHAVIORALLY DISORDERED CHILDREN AS PREPARATION FOR MAINSTREAMING: THEORY, PRACTICE, AND NEW DIRECTIONS

by J. Daniel Hollinger

Behaviorally disordered children experience social rejection in mainstreamed settings, and this conflicts with the goals of mainstreaming. A conceptual framework of social competence is presented, within which specific social skills are identified. The literature on social skills training is reviewed. Although social skills training holds promise for improving social competence, it fails to address the social perception biases of peers. It is argued that social perception biases help sustain negative peer relationships. Thus, addressing social perception biases in group social skills training interventions should improve the effectiveness of social skills training interventions, and the mainstreamed experiences of behaviorally disordered children should be more successful.

The social incompetence of behaviorally disordered children presents a complex problem for teachers, administrators, parents, peers, and the students themselves. Lacking the skills necessary to interact in socially acceptable ways, behaviorally disordered children often experience difficulty with peer relationships in mainstreamed settings (Gresham, 1982; Vace, 1968). Peers tend to reject them more than nonbehaviorally disordered children (Sabornie & Kauffman, 1985).

Peer rejection of behaviorally disordered children presents a particularly disturbing problem. First, rejected children tend to remain rejected over time despite changes in social relationships and settings (Coie & Dodge, 1983; Newcomb & Bukowski, 1984). Second, they report feelings of extreme loneliness (Asher & Wheeler, 1985). Third, in comparison to other status groups, rejected children are more likely to experience academic failure and engage in delinquent behavior (Kupersmidt, 1983). And fourth, they are at risk for mental health and adjustment problems as adults (Cowen, Pederson, Babigian, Izzo, & Trost, 1973; Roff, 1961; Roff, Sells, & Golden, 1972; Rubin & Clark, 1983).

The social rejection experienced by behaviorally disordered children in mainstreamed settings conflicts with the goals of mainstreaming. Preparation for social integration is, then, a necessary part of their education. Increased emphasis on improving the social competence of behaviorally disordered children should lead to more successful mainstreamed experiences. One approach to improving the social competence of children is to teach them social skills. Social skills training is enjoying increased theoretical, empirical, and practitioner support (Gresham, 1986a). Although social skills training is in an infant stage of development, it holds promise for increasing the success of mainstreaming for behaviorally disordered children.

The purpose of this paper is to first review current theory and practice regarding social skills training for children with behavior problems. This is accomplished by first discussing the general framework of social competence. Then, building on the existing literature and practice, a slightly different approach to social skills training is proposed. This approach takes into account the effects of social perception biases of peers which may hinder mainstreaming attempts.

A Conceptual Framework of Social Competence

Researchers attempting to identify the necessary and sufficient conditions of social competence rely on subjective evaluations (Hops, 1983) as well as comparisons between an individual's behavior and explicit criteria or normative data (Gresham, 1986a). From these subjective evaluations and social comparison procedures, which are the major methods of social validation (Kazdin, 1982), evaluations regarding an individual's social competence are made. A major problem with this approach is the lack of "clear, objective, specifiable, external criteria by which to judge social behavior" (Hops, 1983, p. 4). On the other hand, the absence of objective criteria allows researchers to approach the problem in accordance with their theoretical and clinical orientations. Regardless of one's orientation, in the search for a definition of social competence it is important to look for social behaviors or social skills that lead to desirable social outcomes.

In addition to specific social skills, which contribute significantly to social competence in children (Hops & Finch, 1985), additional factors such as the reciprocity of social interactions (Strain, Odom, & McConnell, 1984), social information processing or perception, and unconscious influences play a role in defining social competence (Dodge, 1985). The methodological difficulties associated with studying unconscious influences hinder progress in this area. Although underlying psychological processes may affect social behavior, the nature of the relationship between unconscious influences and social behavior is largely unknown.

Social perception research reveals a complex relationship between social perception and social competence. Perception of social events and behavior is a function of the observer (perceiver), other participants, the specific situation, and the broader context in which the interaction occurs. Models designed to account for the complexity of social perceptions postulate that the ability to perceive accurately directly affects one's ability to engage in effective social behavior (McFall, 1982). However, research indicates that the relationship between one's ability to perceive social situations accurately and one's level of social skill may be indirect (Cartledge, Stupay, & Kaczala, 1986). Consequently, Cartledge et al. suggest that social perception skills and social behavior skills represent two separate skill areas. Although accurate social perception skills may be a necessary prerequisite to competent social behavior, they are not sufficient.

According to Putallaz and Gottman (1982), the major dimensions of social competence are (a) overall positiveness, (b) the ability to resolve conflicts, (c) awareness of group norms, (d) the ability to communicate accurately, (e) the ability to establish a common bond between oneself and another, and (f) positive self-perception. Additionally, Asher (1983) suggests that social competence is characterized by (a) the ability to "read" the social situation so that one's behavior is relevant, (b) responsiveness or the ability to initiate positive interaction as well as to respond positively to others' initiations, and (c) a "process view" or an understanding that relationships require time to develop. These characteristics broadly define social competence as the ability to accomplish appropriate goals in social situations (Parkhurst & Asher, 1985).

Accomplishing goals in social situations is a very complex task. Unlike many academic tasks in which the goals and procedures are explicitly defined, social situations are usually rather ambiguous. Hidden agenda on any individual's part may further complicate social interaction. Thus, accounting for the complexity of social interaction requires both a molar and molecular analysis (McFall, 1982). Molar analysis is conducted at the level of the broad dimensions of social competence mentioned earlier. Molecular analysis entails an understanding of the specific behaviors or social skills involved in social interaction.

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From the molecular perspective, the analysis focuses on observable behaviors. From the molar perspective, the analysis focuses on the social-cognitive aspects of performance. For example, sharing a toy may be identified as an appropriate social behavior. The observable behavior may consist of offering a toy to another child by extending the hand with the toy and simultaneously asking, "Would you like to play with me?" The social-cognitive variable pertains to the goals underlying the behavior (Parkhurst & Asher, 1985). In this example the goal may be to have a playmate for recess, to continue a long-standing friendship, or any number of other social pursuits.

To summarize, social competence may be conceptualized at both molar and molecular levels. That is, general (molar) characteristics of social competence are defined in part by discrete (molecular) behaviors. However, the accumulation and frequent use of specific prosocial behaviors is not sufficient to guarantee social competence. In addition, at the level of molar analysis, children must have the ability to make decisions about when and how to engage in prosocial behaviors (Panella & Henggeler, 1986).

The Assessment of Social Competence

Having developed a conceptual framework for social competence, the question arises concerning how behaviorally disordered children's level of competence can best be assessed. Based on the conceptual framework provided above, it follows that a thorough and accurate assessment of social competence requires multiple measures. Multiple measures may include peer, parent, independent observer, and teacher evaluations. It is important to note that these different methods of assessment may measure different dimensions of children's social competence (Gresham, Bruce, & Veitia, 1983; Hymel & Asher, 1977). For example, data from a peer sociometric measure indicating that a child is socially rejected provides assessment information about the child's social competence as perceived by peers. That information is important in that social rejection is predictive of later maladjustment and indicative of other social adjustment problems. Sociometric data do not, however, provide information on social behavior deficits that may contribute to social rejection. To assess the behavioral dimension of social competence, naturalistic observations of children's social behavior, which are recognized for their high face validity, can be used to provide valuable qualitative and quantitative data (La Greca & Stark, 1986).

It is common in fact to assess social competence by using sociometric measures to identify low status children, followed by behavioral observations. However, the relationship between social status and social behavior is not yet clear. For example, Gottman (1977) found no relationship between the frequency of social interaction and social status, which led him to conclude that sociometric measures of social isolation differ from behavioral observation measures of social isolation; that is, they measure different dimensions of social competence.

Regardless of the method used, the goal of assessment should be to identify variables that are salient to children's social adjustment. Gresham (1986b) suggests that social competence assessment should consider both the process and the outcome of specific social behaviors, thereby assuring that the target behavior is indeed a social skill of importance to social competence. It is insufficient to merely assess the quality or quantity of a particular behavior without evidence that the behavior is related to an important criterion variable such as peer acceptance (Gottman, Gonso, & Rasmussen, 1975; Schloss, Schloss, Wood, & Kiehl, 1986).

Perhaps the most common criterion variable in social competence research has been social status among peers, and the most common dependent variable has been social behavior. Behavioral correlates of high social status are then considered important social skills. In this approach, peers, the social validation agents, have played a critical role in defining social skills that characterize social competence. These social skills are reviewed in the following section.

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Social Skills Characteristic of Social Competence

In two studies, popular and unpopular children were compared on rates of giving and receiving positive and negative reinforcement to peers (Gottman et al., 1975; Masters & Furman, 1981). These studies showed that popular children gave and received more positive reinforcement than unpopular children. That popular children gave more positive reinforcement to peers may have accounted for the fact that they also received more positive reinforcement. In any case, the ability to positively reinforce peers through such behaviors as praise, warm greetings, and affection, among others, has been identified as an important social skill among children.

Putallaz and Gottman (1981a) analyzed the group entry behavior of popular and unpopular children in a laboratory setting. Although unpopular children used the same entry behaviors as popular children, they were less successful in gaining entry and acceptance by the peer group. One explanation for the differences in entry success may have been the frequency with which particular entry behaviors were performed. In this study, popular children, in comparison to unpopular children, were less likely to ask informational questions, talk about themselves, disagree, and state their feelings when attempting to gain entry into the group. That is, they didn't draw attention to themselves, or disagree as frequently as unpopular children. Instead, as Dodge, Schlundt, Schocken, and Delugach (1983) confirmed, they gained entry into groups by using "low-risk" tactics that avoided interrupting the group's activity. Low-risk tactics were defined as those behaviors which had a low probability of eliciting a decisive response (positive or negative) in comparison to a neutral response. The most successful low-risk behavior involved hovering around the peer group and waiting for an invitation to join by a member of the group. "High-risk" tactics were defined by their high probability of eliciting a decisive response. Examples of high-risk behaviors included asking questions and making statements about the group members or their activities. As Dodge et al. pointed out, high-risk behaviors were used frequently by popular children. However, successful use of them followed low-risk tactics and required an established position in the group.

Naturalistic observations of preadolescents in the classroom and on the playground were conducted by Dodge, Coie, and Brakke (1982) to study social initiations. Their coding system measured relatively general social behavior as compared to the rather discrete units of behavior assessed by Putallaz and Gottman (1981a) and Dodge et al. (1983). In comparison to their rejected peers, popular children initiated about the same number of social interactions. However, their initiations were accepted by peers significantly more frequently than rejected students' initiations. The differences between rejected and popular children on rates of acceptance of social initiations was probably due to the appropriateness of the initiation. Popular children approached peers frequently during play time and infrequently during scheduled work time. Rejected children failed to curb the frequency of their social initiations during scheduled work time. To the contrary, neglected children, who are neither liked nor disliked by their peers, initiated social interactions rather infrequently both in the classroom and on the playground.

Aggressive behavior has been another focus in the literature on social skills. The findings have been somewhat inconsistent. Based on observational logs, Campbell and Yarrow (1961) concluded that popular and rejected children display similar levels of aggressive behavior, both more than neglected children. According to the information provided, no reliability checks on behavioral recording procedures were conducted. As Dodge et al. (1982) pointed out, the fact that the individuals recording the behavior knew the children may have affected the results of the study.

The Dodge et al. (1982) findings contrast with Campbell and Yarrow's (1961) findings. Popular, average, and neglected children differed from rejected children on levels of aggressive behavior. The overall rates of aggressive behavior were low for all children but rejected children acted aggressively more than twice as often as their peers. Other investigators have also reported that rejected children are more aggressive than their peers (Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983; French & Waas, 1985; Milich, Landau, Kilby, & Whitten, 1982). Although the dramatic difference in rates of aggressive behavior may have accounted for rejection in some children, it did not account for

social status differences among nonrejected peers who displayed similar amounts of aggressive behavior. That is, merely abstaining from high levels of aggressive behavior did not necessarily result in popularity. Nonetheless, refraining from aggressive behavior was important in avoiding peer rejection.

In addition to refraining from aggressive behavior, popular children have been found to display high levels of prosocial behavior (Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983; Dodge, 1983; Hartup, Glazer, & Charlesworth, 1967). Prosocial behaviors studied by social skills researchers include (a) providing helpful suggestions, (b) giving attention and approval, (c) being affectionate, and (d) supporting peers. In general, prosocial behavior has been defined as behavior that is socially reinforcing to the recipient of the behavior (LaGreca & Stark, 1986). Interestingly, children of average status, in comparison to popular children, have been found to display similar levels of prosocial behavior (Dodge, 1983).

Dodge et al. (1983) found that the amount of task-inappropriate behavior differentiated rejected children from their average and popular peers. For example, popular and average children spent less time engaged in task-inappropriate solitary behavior such as daydreaming and aimless walking. And they approached their peers less frequently at inappropriate times, such as scheduled work times in the classroom.

Thus social skills have been defined as those behaviors that correlate with high social status. Through behavioral observations, researchers have identified social skills that are characteristic of children with average or high social status. Although the social behavioral profile of socially competent children is in an infant stage of development, the previously reviewed research has established that certain social behaviors or skills correlate with social acceptance by peers.

Major Approaches to Social Skills Training

Having identified specific social skills characteristic of social competence, it is critical to consider how these skills can be taught to behaviorally disordered children in preparation for mainstreaming. There are two major approaches to social skills training, both of which are based on the principles of social learning theory (Lytle, 1986). One approach is characterized by direct instruction, discussion, modeling, and rehearsal of specific social skills. This approach is commonly referred to simply as social skills training. The other major approach is characterized by an emphasis on social cognitive processes and how children solve interpersonal problems (Michelson & Mannarino, 1986). This approach is referred to variously as social cognitive problem solving, social problem solving, and interpersonal cognitive problem solving.

Interpersonal Cognitive Problem Solving

The major assumption underlying theory and research on interpersonal cognitive problem solving is that the ability to solve interpersonal problems is important to social adjustment (D'Zurilla & Goldfried, 1971). Thus the primary goal of interpersonal cognitive problem-solving interventions is to teach individuals how to think through and resolve interpersonal conflicts (Spivack & Shure, 1982). According to Spivack, Platt, and Shure (1976), the major skills needed to be an effective problem solver are (a) the ability to be aware of and sensitive to interpersonal problems, (b) the ability to generate alternative solutions to interpersonal problems, (c) means-end thinking or the ability to think through the process required to arrive at a solution, (d) the ability to think of the consequences of one's social behavior, and (e) the ability to understand the reciprocal effects between one's own behavior and feelings and the behavior and feelings of others. Presumably, training and greater adeptness in these interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skills result in behavioral change and improved social adjustment.

Although the curriculum varies among programs, the major instructional components included in most interpersonal cognitive problem-solving programs are (a) identification of interpersonal problems, (b) articulation of feelings associated with interpersonal problems, (c) determination of appropriate goals for problem resolution, (d) generation of alternative solutions, (e) consideration of consequences, (f) modeling, (g) role plays, and (h) feedback. As such, training addresses cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects of social functioning (Weissberg, 1985). The focus, however, is on cognitive strategies, which are viewed as the critical factor in social adjustment (Rose-Krasnor, 1985).

Social Skills Training

Social skills training is behavior specific in comparison to social problem solving. That is, the emphasis is on teaching specific prosocial behaviors rather than cognitive strategies. The assumption underlying this approach is that children with social adjustment problems have not learned certain necessary prosocial behaviors (Ladd, 1985). Therefore teaching them to engage in these behaviors should lead to greater social adjustment.

Since the primary focus of social skills training is on discrete social behaviors, training programs have emphasized role playing or behavioral rehearsal. In addition to behavioral rehearsal, major instructional components include (a) discussion of the social skill, (b) modeling, and (c) feedback. The traditional social skills training medium involves direct instruction by the trainer. Currently, videotapes and videodiscs are available to supplement social skills training procedures (Thorkildsen, 1985). Regardless of the medium, social skills training procedures provide children with the opportunity to develop an understanding of the skill concept and to expand their behavioral repertoire through practice of the skill.

The Efficacy of Social Skills Training

Investigators have studied the impact of social skills training primarily through sociometric and behavioral measures. The results of social skills training interventions have been disparate, as evidenced by the following literature review. But despite mixed results, the studies, taken together, have produced strong evidence for continued development of social skills training procedures.

Interpersonal Cognitive Problem Solving

The seminal work in this area has been generated by Spivack and Shure and their colleagues (Spivack et al., 1976; Spivack & Shure, 1974). They reported that children who received training in interpersonal cognitive problem solving improved in their abilities to generate alternative solutions and anticipate consequences. In recent years, other investigators have replicated these findings with suburban and urban second, third, and fourth graders (Gesten et al., 1982; Weissberg et al., 1981) and with high school students (Sarason & Sarason, 1981).

In addition to improving problem-solving ability, training programs have been aimed at improving children's social adjustment. Unfortunately, as Urbain and Kendall (1980) noted, earlier investigations failed to assess social adjustment. Recently, however, investigators have used teacher and peer ratings and self-reports to measure social adjustment. The effects of interpersonal cognitive problem-solving training on social adjustment have been inconsistent in comparison to the relatively consistent results on measures of problem-solving ability. Gesten et al. (1982) found that teachers rated control groups higher than treatment groups on measures of social adjustment. To the contrary, Weissberg et al. (1981) reported that trained children were better adjusted and more socially competent. Adjustment gains may have differed as a function of training time. Whereas the training program used by Gesten et al. involved 17 lessons, the program used by Weissberg et al. involved 42 lessons. Two instructional components that were not part of the program by Gesten et al. were included in the study by Weissberg et al. They taught children to identify upset feelings associated with interpersonal problems and to try another solution to an interpersonal problem when one attempt failed.

In an effort to strengthen the appeal of problem-solving training procedures and thereby increase student participation, Elias (1983) used videotapes to model effective problem-solving techniques. Discussion followed the modeling procedure, during which time teachers clarified and reinforced the problem-solving skills portrayed on the videotapes. The ratings of teachers, counselors, and aides on the behavior of the emotionally disturbed subjects in this study indicated

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improvements in ability to control behavior and increase prosocial behavior.

Although teacher ratings provide information on social adjustment, overreliance on teacher assessments of adjustment has posed a major problem in evaluations of interpersonal cognitive problem-solving studies. Typically, teachers have not been blind to the goals of the intervention. Consequently, their assessments of children's behavior may have represented their expectations for behavior change rather than actual change. That is, teacher expectations for behavior change may have resulted in greater acceptance of trained children and their behavior (Michelson & Mannarino, 1986). Since these studies have not included direct behavioral observations it has been difficult to determine whether children's social behavior actually improved as a result of training in interpersonal cognitive problem solving.

Effects of Social Skills Training on Social Status and Behavior

Defining social skill by the degree of peer acceptance has resulted in the use of social status changes as an index for assessing the efficacy of social skills interventions. Oden and Asher (1977) coached unpopular children in four social interaction concepts. The children received instruction, role-played, and discussed how to participate in activities, cooperate with peers, communicate clearly, and support others in play settings. Social status improved only on a sociometric measure of preferred playmates. The social status of children in treatment groups failed to improve on other measures. In addition, no behavioral changes were observed.

Ladd (1981) employed procedures similar to the ones used by Oden and Asher (1977). Ladd also found that social skills training improved children's peer acceptance as measured by nominations for playmates. In addition, the intervention resulted in improved social behaviors of asking questions and leading.

Contrary to the findings of Oden and Asher (1977) and Ladd (1981), La Greca and Santogrossi (1980) found no improvements in social status as a result of social skills training. Furthermore, although unpopular children initiated more interactions with their peers, overall positive social behavior did not increase.

In addition to unpopular status, Bierman and Furman (1984) used poor conversational skills as a criterion for the selection of their trainees. Training children in conversational skills resulted in improved social interaction. Moreover, when peers were involved in the training sessions the unpopular children enjoyed increased peer acceptance. The close match between trained skills and measures of behavior probably contributed to the positive results on behavioral measures.

In the studies just reviewed, the subjects were identified as unpopular. However, Coie and Kupersmidt (1983) demonstrated the importance of distinguishing between subgroups of neglected and rejected unpopular children. Neglected children were characterized by withdrawn and shy behavior and were rarely aggressive or aversive. Rejected children, on the other hand, interacted frequently with peers and were highly aggressive, both physically and verbally. Moreover, rejected children tended to react aggressively in social situations, whereas neglected children left the scene. Unfortunately, few investigators have distinguished between rejected and neglected children in intervention studies.

Coie and Krehbiel (1984) reported improved social status of rejected students as measured by a rating scale but not according to peer nominations. The social skills training procedures were modeled after those used by Oden and Asher (1977) and Ladd (1981). As was the case with Oden and Asher's study, the intervention failed to produce behavioral change.

Improvement in the behavior of highly aggressive children as a result of social skills training was documented by Bornstein, Bellack, and Hersen (1980). Although the subjects were not identified as unpopular or rejected students, highly aggressive behavior often covaries with rejection. Whereas previously reviewed investigations established a priori the social skills to be taught, this intervention was tailored to the specific needs of the subjects. Such specificity probably contributed to the effectiveness of the intervention.

Other investigators have also reported behavioral improvement as a result of social skills training with behaviorally disordered children. In a classroom for behaviorally disordered children, deficient social skills in four children were identified and remediated with social skills training (LaNunziata, Hill, & Krause, 1981). Lebsock and Salzberg (1981) also improved the behavior of behaviorally disordered students in a special education classroom with a social skills training intervention. The intervention procedures involved role plays and reinforcement techniques. The individualized nature of assessment and treatment probably contributed to the success of both interventions.

An important consideration in judging the success of an intervention concerns the extent of generalization (Baer, Wolf, & Risley, 1968). Many of the studies reviewed in this section, and others in the general social skills training literature (Strain & Shores, 1983), indicate that generalization of behavior across settings, time, stimuli, and responses needs to be improved (Schloss et al., 1986). While demonstrating the efficacy of social skills training under treatment conditions for behaviorally disordered children is necessary, it is not sufficient to meet the requirements of effective training that leads to socially important changes.

To summarize, social skills training intervention research indicates that children with behavioral problems can benefit from social skills training. The power of social skills training to effect changes in social status and behavior appears to depend on several factors. First, it is important to tailor training to the specific needs of the target children (Coie, 1985). This requires an accurate assessment of behavioral deficits. Second, social skills training that targets unpopular children without identifying subgroups of neglected children may fail to address salient social skills deficits. Third, the most successful social skills interventions follow coaching procedures (Putallaz & Gottman, 1981b). In addition, the efficacy of social skills training is determined in part by peers' perceptions of and behavior toward behaviorally disordered children (Strain & Shores, 1983).

To date, social skills training interventions consistently focus exclusively on the children who are identified as those with the behavior problems or low social status. Yet social behavior and status are defined in part by other persons in the target child's life. Consequently, it may be important to consider peers' perceptions in social skills training, thus focusing on interactive exchanges rather than discrete behaviors (Strain et al., 1984). It seems especially important to address negative social perception biases among peers in their interactions with behaviorally disordered children.

"A popular child may give an instruction to the group in a tone of voice that could be interpreted as bossy. The group may accept and even anticipate such bossy instructions from someone who is popular. However, if an unpopular child gave the same instruction in the same tone of voice, it is unlikely that the group would respond favorably."

Social Perception Bias

Children assign meaning to behavior according to peers' social status (Hymel, Wagner, & Butler, in preparation). That is, they bias their interpretations of behavior in ways that are congruent with peers' social status. Popular children's behavior is interpreted in ways that are congruent with popular status and unpopular children's behavior is interpreted in ways that are congruent with unpopular status. The result is that social perception biases may maintain the low social status of some children, despite change in their behavior.

Biased perceptions and interpretations of children's social behavior may encourage incorrect attributions concerning intentions underlying behavior. Biased attributions of intent serve the function of legitimizing one's perceptions. For example, a popular child may give an instruction to the group in a tone of voice that could be interpreted as bossy. The group may accept and even anticipate such bossy instructions from someone who is popular. However, if an unpopular child gave the same instruction in the same tone of voice, it is

unlikely that the group would respond favorably. To the popular child the group may attribute the intent to lead, whereas to the unpopular child the group may attribute the intent to manipulate.

Attributions of intent may be powerful determinants of peer behavior to the extent that they may serve an organizational function in peer groups (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1972). Ambiguous social behavior presents situations which often require children to make negative or positive judgments about the actor's behavior. For example, while playing a game on the playground a child may trip over a peer's foot. To some children the incident may appear purely accidental. Other children may view the tripping as intentional. To assist themselves in making judgments children may attribute negative or positive intentions to the actor. Attributions of intent in ambiguous social situations may serve to organize responses according to the actor's social status position or reputation for specific behavioral tendencies. In the example above, if the child who tripped the other child was popular it may be more likely that the behavior would be accepted as accidental. On the other hand, if the child who tripped the other child was unpopular and had a reputation for being aggressive, then the same behavior would likely be viewed as intentional. The attribution of an intent to trip would, of course, be congruent with the child's low social status and reputation for being aggressive.

Indeed, Dodge's (1980; Dodge & Frame, 1982) analyses of boys' interactions revealed that peers made biased evaluations of behavior. Specifically, he found that peers were four to ten times more likely to attribute hostile intentions to the behavior of rejected and aggressive boys. Furthermore, peers tended to remember the negative behaviors and ignore the prosocial behaviors of rejected and aggressive boys. Moreover, after a boy had established a negative reputation, he was the recipient of more negative behavior from peers.

Hymel (1986) also found that children's explanations of peer behavior varied as a function of being liked or disliked. Relative to liked peers, children explained disliked peers' negative behavior in terms of stable characteristics and positive behavior in terms of unstable characteristics. Furthermore, in comparison to liked peers, children attributed to disliked peers greater responsibility for negative behavior. That is, peers tended to expect the best from children they liked and the worst from children they didn't like.

Negative perceptions have not been limited to children who are acquainted with each other. Naive observers have repeatedly rated the social behavior of learning disabled children more negatively than the behavior of nondisabled peers (Bryan & Perlmutter, 1979; Bryan & Sherman, 1980; Perlmutter & Bryan, 1984). Moreover, impressions were established quickly and with as little as 10 seconds of observation. Yet the naive observers claimed they did not notice any behavioral differences between the learning disabled children and their nondisabled peers (Perlmutter & Bryan, 1984). Apparently, differences in behavior were subtle or perhaps a nonbehavioral variable such as physical appearance accounted for the difference in observers' assessments. In any case, these studies have demonstrated the presence of perceptual bias against learning disabled children.

Some evidence has accumulated which shows that rejected children and adolescents tend to remain in their status position over many years, despite changes in schools and peers (Coie & Dodge, 1983; Roff, Sells, & Golden, 1972). Furthermore, Coie and Kupersmidt (1983) found that rejected children acquired their status quickly in groups of unfamiliar peers. These data have suggested that rejected children consistently behave in ways that lead their peers to dislike them. However, Coie and Kupersmidt found that children who came to be rejected displayed more physically aggressive behavior than popular and neglected children but not more than average children. Yet peers have described rejected students as more aggressive (Coie, Dodge, & Coppotelli, 1982), indicating biased perceptions of rejected children's behavior. This apparent discrepancy between perceived and actual behavior may explain in part why some children came to be rejected and others did not. That is, social perception biases may have been a critical factor in determining peer status and in interpreting behavior. This is not to suggest that real differences in behavior do not exist between rejected children and their peers. Although real differences probably do exist, they may not account completely for the acquired social status of rejection. And they may not account for rejection among all children who experience rejection.

In summary, children learn to expect aggressive behavior from peers who have gained a reputation for being aggressive, although the peers may not actually engage in more aggressive behavior. A cyclical pattern develops in which children engage in more aggressive behavior toward peers who have a reputation of being aggressive. Thus aggressive children are both the recipients and instigators of more aggressive behavior than their peers. From the peers' perspective, aggressive behavior is justified as a response to more aggression from the aggressive child. And the hostile attributions of aggressive boys justify their aggressive behavior. In the end, the more aggressive the child, the more likely it is that they will attribute hostile intentions in ambiguous situations and consequently get caught in the cycle that maintains aggressive interactions.

Although children are often referred to as "having a reputation," the effects of negative reputations are relatively unknown. Evidence is accumulating, however, that suggests children's reputations directly affect their behavior and their peers' behavior toward them. Exactly how reputations or social perception biases are developed is still unclear. Apparently, however, the process of gaining a reputation or particular social status position is not only a function of one's behavior. Rather, it is also a function of one's a priori social status and peers' perceptions of one's behavior.

Therefore, it seems especially important to address the problem of social perception bias among peers of rejected behaviorally disordered children since their history of behavioral problems has probably resulted in a negative reputation. Furthermore, children experiencing rejection by their peers in a classroom for children with behavioral problems are likely suffering from severe social adjustment problems.

Social Skills Training in the Peer Group

Traditionally, social skills training has focused almost exclusively on behaviorally disordered children or those who are perceived to have the social skills deficit (Schloss et al., 1986). Typically, they are the only children involved in the training. The results of these interventions have been mixed, as pointed out earlier. One reason for inconsistent treatment effects may have been the failure to address peers' social perception biases. By not addressing the problem of peer bias toward the target children, researchers may have overlooked a critical determinant of social skills training efficacy.

Conducting social skills training in the peer group may be an effective way of addressing the social adjustment problems faced by mainstreamed behaviorally disordered children. The peer group context would provide a natural environment that is conducive to efforts to improve peers' negatively biased perceptions of behaviorally disordered children, although the focus would still be on training behaviorally disordered children in social skills. The peer group context would also provide opportunities to train peers to avoid the kind of behavior that reinforces unskilled social behavior of behaviorally disordered children. For example, during role plays the trainer may point out how children respond differently to similar behavior of popular peers versus unpopular or behaviorally disordered peers. Response differences indicative of social perception bias can then be discussed and corrected through additional role plays.

Indeed, peers' behavior can exert a controlling influence over other children's behavior (Wahler, 1967). The influence may be negative (e.g., Solomon & Wahler, 1973) or positive (e.g., Smith & Fowler, 1984). Furthermore, children have the potential to be effective behavior change agents (Kalfus, 1984). Given the powerful role that peers play in shaping one another's behavior, inclusion of nonbehaviorally disordered children in social skills training is important if the training is designed to foster successful mainstreaming. The group context provides an opportunity to train peers to avoid responses that perpetuate the unskilled social behavior of behaviorally disordered children. In addition, the potentially positive influence of peers as behavior change agents can be systematically included in training sequences. Take the example of a social skills training goal to teach a behaviorally disordered child to initiate social interaction appropriately. Peers could be taught to ignore inappropriate initiations when they occur or to offer a suggestion on how to

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improve the initiation attempt, as opposed to responses that discourage continued attempts. Without training in how to respond to less socially adept mainstreamed children, peers may eventually extinguish newly learned behavior of behaviorally disordered children by ignoring or punishing their imperfect attempts (Strain et al., 1984). To avoid the counterproductive influence of peers, it may be necessary to modify their behavior and thereby eliminate some of the reinforcing contingencies in the natural environment that support maladaptive behavior (Stokes & Osnes, 1986).

In addition, social skills training in the peer group provides opportunities to promote generalization of learned behavior. Since the children are expected to use their new skills in interactions with nonbehaviorally disordered peers, it makes good sense to train them in settings that are similar to the natural settings in which they are expected to function successfully. Indeed, conducting interventions under conditions similar to natural settings promotes generalization (Kazdin, 1980). Without the opportunity to practice newly learned social skills with nonbehaviorally disordered peers, the bleak prospects for stimulus generalization (Schloss et al., 1986) are not likely to improve.

Another important advantage in conducting social skills training in the peer group is the opportunity it provides to accomplish successful prosocial interaction between behaviorally disordered children and their peers. Referred to as *social reciprocity* (Strain et al., 1984), successful interactive exchanges may be the best test and predictor of efficacious social skills training.

Coaching procedures combined with modeling and positive reinforcement may be the most effective training approach (Michelson & Mannarino, 1986). A brief outline of the training procedures might look like the following sequence. First, children would be presented with a play situation involving an ambiguous provocation. For example, in rough-and-tumble play one child pushes another harder than necessary and the child falls into the mud. After presenting the situation the trainer would state and model appropriate responses for all persons involved in the incident. Included in the discussion would be appropriate peer responses to overt negative or inappropriate behavior of the behaviorally disordered child. Then all children would be given the opportunity to rehearse the social skill and the appropriate responses to inappropriate behavior. The focus of rehearsal for rejected or behaviorally disordered children would, however, be on learning the specific social skill. For peers the focus would be on learning to avoid negative attributional biases. In addition, a final component would be used to review the rehearsals.

In summary, social skills training in the peer group may be designed to remediate social skill deficits of behaviorally disordered children to improve their social acceptance in mainstreamed settings. Additionally, it may address the negative social perception biases of peers and thereby represent an improvement over previous social skill training procedures.

Summary and Implications for Future Research

There is a need to provide instruction in social skills to prepare behaviorally disordered children for mainstreaming and to increase their chances for successful social relationships in mainstreamed settings. Instruction in social skills is best understood within a larger framework of social competence. In a social competence context, social skills are defined as social skills if they increase an individual's social competence. Since social competence is defined in part by peers' perceptions of social behavior, social skills training should consider the influence of peers and their perceptions. Although social skills training is a viable intervention strategy for behaviorally disordered children, the failure of social skills training to produce relatively consistent treatment effects raises the question of how training procedures could be improved. The problem of social perception bias among peers is a possible explanation for the mixed results of social skills training interventions. To address social perception bias among peers, the author of this paper proposes that social skills training should take place in the peer group. Conducting training in the peer group provides an opportunity to change negative social perception biases of peers. Furthermore, the peer group context provides a very stringent test of training efficacy. After all, it is ultimately hoped that social skills training with behaviorally disordered children will have some lasting effect on peer relationships.

Future research designs in social skills training should attempt to clarify the role of peers' social perception biases in maintaining undesirable social status and behavior of behaviorally disordered children. Then the most effective social skills training methods for addressing the problem of negative bias should be identified. These methods should be incorporated into existing social skills training curricula to produce more powerful training packages. Hopefully, this new direction in social skills training will result in more positive peer relationships for behaviorally disordered children in mainstreamed settings.

J. Daniel Hollinger is currently conducting his dissertation research at the University of Virginia to examine the effects of social skills training on the behavior and sociometric status of behaviorally disordered children. He is also developing a school-based program for the District of Columbia's Department of Human Services. The program serves preschool children with behavioral problems.

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INCLUDE TIME MANAGEMENT AND LEARNING STRATEGIES IN THE ED CURRICULUM!

by Linda J. Reetz and Joe Crank

Programs for the emotionally disturbed (ED) should include a strong skill enhancement component in addition to the specific instruction in affective instruction. This is for two reasons: research shows that most ED students have low academic skills and mainstreamed ED students are confronted with rigorous academic demands. Reinert and Huang (1987) point out the fact that with children in conflict, one must not only plan for success in behavioral tasks, but also in school tasks. Although many students are organized and develop appropriate learning strategies and study skills, research indicates that many ED students do not develop these skills without direct teacher intervention. Scruggs and Mastropieri (1986) found that the academic performance of elementary-school-aged ED students was minimally different than that of learning disabled students. It is for these reasons that ED students should be taught learning and organizational strategies that will enable them to be successful in the regular classroom environment, where the demands are far greater than in the special education classroom. This paper will focus on the instruction of necessary academic and organizational skills necessary for ED students in the upper elementary or middle school environment.

For the purposes of thinking about and discussing the necessary learning skills of ED kids, it is proposed that skills be categorized into three components – acquisition skills, storage skills, and retrieval skills. These three components are necessary in the learning process. They complement one another. Furthermore, specific learning strategies can be learned which may augment each of the components.

Acquisition of Information

Acquisition of information from textbooks or other written materials can be difficult for many skill deficient ED students.

Textbook Reading. Many students in special programs do not know how to digest the information in textbooks. Well-written texts have a structure which allows them to be systematically decoded. Armbruster (1984) drew attention to certain aspects of overall text structure and how it can be a guide to understanding of the content of a text. Several strategies can assist a student in gaining information from text material. Multipass (Schumaker, Deshler, Denton, Alley, Clark, and Warner, 1982) is a system similar to SQ3R (Survey, question, read, recite, review) which has been modified to be taught in a direct instruction format. For younger students and those who have difficulty learning new tasks, direct instruction is an important teaching method. With the Multipass strategy the instructor points out the importance of comprehension of chapter titles, introductions, summaries, overall organizational patterns, pictures and graphs, and table of contents. It must be kept in mind that many reading deficient ED students have not learned skills which proficient learners take for granted and have learned without instruction.

Self-Questioning. Self-questioning strategies involve a series of steps to guide student inquiry. Specifically, students read the title, the subtitle or first sentence in a passage and ask themselves questions about this introductory information. Next, students are to read the text to find the answer to the questions they have posed. Finally, students repeat the answer to solidify their understanding of the material Students may also mark the text with special symbols indicating the type of question answered, i.e., "who", "why", "where", "when", and "how". During discussions with the entire class, the ED teacher can focus on the same questioning techniques to assure that students are reading content material carefully and are extracting important information.

Paraphrasing. Paraphrasing strategies are designed to help ED students cope with reading demands and to enhance comprehension. Paraphrasing may be used specifically to develop a student's recall of main ideas and specific facts in a text or any other reading material. Research has shown that students' comprehension and retention scores increase in proportion to the quality and quantity of the paraphrased statements they make while reading a passage (Schumaker, Denton, & Deshler, 1984). Many students, however, laboriously read lengthy passages rather than divide the material into small units and interact with the text's message. Through paraphrasing, ED students are taught to read a short passage of material, ask themselves what has just been read, and rephrase the main idea and specific facts in their own words.

There are several other strategies which can be classified as acquisition strategies. The use of visual images in comprehending new information can be useful to some students. The use of visual aids such as maps, graphs, pictures, and tables can increase the student's ability to extract needed information from a reading assignment.

Storage of Information

Once information has been acquired, it must be stored, at least temporarily, until expression and demonstration of that information is requested in the form of a test or written paper. Storage of information is usually accomplished through the use of memory strategies. However, storage strategies may also include listening and note-taking strategies. Two memory strategies can be easily adapted for upper elementary and secondary ED students. First letter mnemonic strategies are designed to aid students in memorizing lists of information. ED students are taught to use mnemonics, or memorization aids, involving the first letter in each word of the list to be memorized. Either single words, phrases, or sentences using the first letters of each word in the list are formed to aid memorization. Paired associates strategies are designed to aid students in the memorization of pairs or small groups of related information, such as dates and events, people and accomplishments, or authors and works. Strategy-deficient ED students can be taught memorization techniques which utilize visual imagery, associations with familiar things in the students' own lives, and a first syllable memorization technique.

Expression of Stored Knowledge

Expression of stored knowledge is usually demonstrated through written exercises or completion of assignments and tests. Error-monitoring or proofreading is a skill which a student can use to improve his/her written papers. Locating the four most common types of errors (capitalization, overall editing and appearance, punctuation, and spelling) is a basic learning strategy. Paragraph writing strategies can be learned which teach students how to monitor their work as well as to generate topic, detail, and clincher sentences. The use of *idea diagrams*, (Armbruster and Anderson, 1982) may be incorporated into two steps – thinking and organizing – of a theme-writing strategy. Theme-writing strategies teach students how to generate ideas and how to organize these ideas into a logical sequence. Test-taking strategies are designed to aid students in the completion of tests. Effective test taking involves deciding on priorities and scheduling time when taking a test, reading and following instructions, reading each question carefully, and strategically deciding on the answer, abandoning hard questions the first time through the test, estimating answers when necessary, and surveying the test to determine whether all questions have been answered and checking work.

Thought For The Day

Upon hearing a speaker discuss recently the explosion in the handicapped population I was reminded of the comments of Bill Morse on the subject. He said we should "stop pulling kids out of the river downstream and run upstream to see who is throwing them in."

Organization and Time Management

It is also common for many emotionally disturbed students to be unorganized and to have poor time management skills (Lewis and Doorlog, 1987). These authors itemize a number of these problems as failing to bring necessary items to class, time management problems during testing, missing important information in assignments, etc. Therefore, specific direct instructional time should be devoted to the development of needed organizational skills. Students should be taught to manage their time wisely by: keeping a schedule and assignment notebook, planning ahead for tests, planning for consistent homework completion, and budgeting time and activities necessary to complete long term projects.

Following are activities to aid in this process:

Personal Scheduling. Give each student a schedule broken into fifteen minute segments covering all waking hours. For a number of days, have the students write down all of their activities on the time chart. Analyze the time charts and through discussion determine needed changes. Note times devoted to and needed to complete various types of assignments: reading chapters, studying for tests, completion of math assignments, etc. These times will vary for each student. Use new time charts to plan ahead for homework assignments (short term and long term) as well as test preparation. Monthly calendars will be helpful to plan ahead for various phases of long term projects.

Assignment Notebooks. Model what should be put in an assignment notebook (i.e., page numbers, due dates, specific information to help complete assignments appropriately, enroute activities to complete long term assignments including a time line for these activities, etc.). Monitor notebooks closely and provide suggestions and instructions where necessary.

Group Discussion Activities. Kerr, Nelson & Lambert (1987) recommend holding discussion sessions where a number of students share information on how they organize their study times and plan ahead.

Organizational Checksheets. Prepare organizational checksheets to aid students in self-monitoring their organizational skills. In the middle school, students will begin using lockers and need to be aware of bringing essential items to class. A checksheet will assist a student in remembering to bring such items as texts, notebooks, pens, papers, homework assignments, etc. to class.

Together, these organization and time management skills will foster independence in the mainstream classroom. They will lead to an effective transition from the controlled special class environment to that of the regular classroom.

Conclusion

Traditional models of serving ED students in many schools emphasize primarily tutorial help from the teacher and affective instruction. This approach may be insufficient in meeting all of ED students' crucial needs. Direct instruction has been shown to be a valid method of instructing skill deficient students in organization and time management and various learning strategies. Incorporating these components into the curriculum may assist academically deficient ED students in becoming more independent and better learners.

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EMOTIONALLY HANDICAPPED STUDENTS FROM CULTURALLY AND LINGUISTICALLY DIVERSE BACKGROUNDS: A MULTIDIMENSIONAL PROFILE

by Debra A. Colley

Issues related to the education of emotionally handicapped students from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds transcend referral, evaluation, classification, and placement procedures. Aside from these issues, the fact remains that once such students are placed in special education, teachers are responsible for the development and implementation of appropriate programs.

Due to the mandated provision of educational services through both special education and mainstreamed settings, many teachers are faced with the challenge of teaching CLD emotionally handicapped students. To meet this challenge, educators must look at the diverse characteristics that affect the teaching/learning process of children from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Information on cultural and linguistic variables as well as on behavioral characteristics should be used to gather accurate information about the student in order to develop and implement appropriate programs. It is through a holistic view of the child, including related cultural, environmental, and academic variables, that the most appropriate educational program will be developed.

A Multidimensional Profile

The major variables that reflect the nature/needs of CLD emotionally handicapped students and affect the teaching/learning process in the classroom include cultural diversity, native and second language abilities, cognitive abilities, learning characteristics, and the handicapping condition itself. Figure 1 portrays each of these variables as components of a multidimensional profile. The profile depicts a holistic view of CLD students with handicapping conditions as each dimension can be examined as a separate entity, yet the interrelationships between the dimensions are vital to the development of a more accurate student profile. The interrelationships between the variables are at the core of individualizing instruction.

With the scope of this paper, it is not possible to fully describe nor delineate the many variables involved in each dimension of the profile. The following sections will introduce the major needs along each of the dimensions of the profile in order to begin to develop an understanding of the many variables that affect educational practices for these students.

Cultural Diversity

The first component of the model is cultural diversity. Cultural behavior has been studied in terms of an integrated set of ideas and the associated behavior patterns and products (Hiebert, 1976). A set of norms, established through the culture of a people, is common to those who share belief systems, interaction patterns, organization of experiences and perceptions. Such individuals, therefore, share similar feelings, predict and interpret the environment in similar ways, and organize the way in which they learn (Trueba, 1979). By the time children begin their formal education career, they have already internalized the basic values and beliefs of their culture, learned the rules of behavior for their community, and established socialization skills and expectations (Longstreet, 1979; Saville-Troike, 1978).

Cultural behavior patterns and products are affected by stages of ethnicity as well as the process of acculturation itself. The "process of change" that many culturally diverse groups experience plays an important role in the identification and exploration of culture-specific behavior. Cultural diversity should, therefore, be viewed as a continuum from traditional community values to mainstreamed American values. In this way, the role of cultural diversity can be individually interpreted for each student as it relates to the current academic/interpersonal setting.

Realizing, therefore, that individual differences do exist, cultural behavior patterns affect the very basis of the teaching/learning process and must be taken into consideration in program development and implementation. Specific areas that have been identified and researched include: the importance of the family and relationships between members, community and group membership, roles within the group, status within the family and community, interpersonal relationships among members of the community, social rules for and attitudes toward communication, child-rearing practices, beliefs and practices associated with religious ideology, expectations of individuals and of the group, purposes and values of education, social value patterns, orientation modes, attitudes toward the handicapped, and non-verbal communication patterns (Hiebert, 1976; Longstreet, 1979; Nine-Curt, 1981; Ramírez & Castañeda, 1974). Each of these factors, as well as others, plays an important role in the student's educational experiences, expectations, motivation, learning preferences, and interactions with other students and teachers in the classroom.

Cultural diversity, therefore, is an important foundation in understanding the CLD emotionally handicapped student. In developing the multidimensional profile for the student, specific information on cultural diversity must be obtained and the interrelationships between cultural variables and the other dimensions of the model must be further explored.

Native and Second Language Abilities

The second dimension of the multidimensional profile is native and second language abilities. This component of the profile represents the nature and sequence of language development as it applies to both first and second language acquisition.

Native language abilities should be considered in terms of the normal sequence of language development, specific native language abilities/disabilities, and the student's appropriate use and modification of language for various communication and social situations. Specific strengths and weaknesses in the areas of phonolgy, morphology, syntax, and semantics should be understood across both receptive and expressive language tasks. Theoretical frameworks and specific models for the development and evaluation of language skills have been researched and applied to populations of children with varying linguistic needs (Bloom & Lahey, 1978; Lund & Duchan, 1983; Polloway & Smith, 1982; and others).

Based upon an understanding of the development of the first language of the student, second language abilities must be explored. The acquisition of receptive and expressive abilities in the second language must also be explored together with factors that enhance successful acquisition and communicative proficiency in the second language.

Research has shown that a variety of factors enhance the acquisition of a second language and are intrinsic to the development of communicative proficiency. The factors have been categorized in terms of social, affective, personality, cognitive, and personal factors. Specific areas that have been researched include: personality and second language learning; age-related variables and differences; home language; parental attitudes regarding second language acquisition; amount of time spent with the target language group; level of acculturation; the child's identification with the majority culture and the percentage of non-English speaking people that live in the community (Papalia, 1976; Schumann, 1978). In addition, Brown (1981) has cited positive self-esteem, lack of inhibition, positive attitudes, and empathy toward others as affective factors that influence second language acquisition.

Each of these factors becomes intertwined with other dimensions

of the model and are intrinsic to understanding native and second language acquisition for CLD emotionally handicapped students. The interrelationships between language abilities and the other variables in the profile represent major aspects of program development for CLD students.

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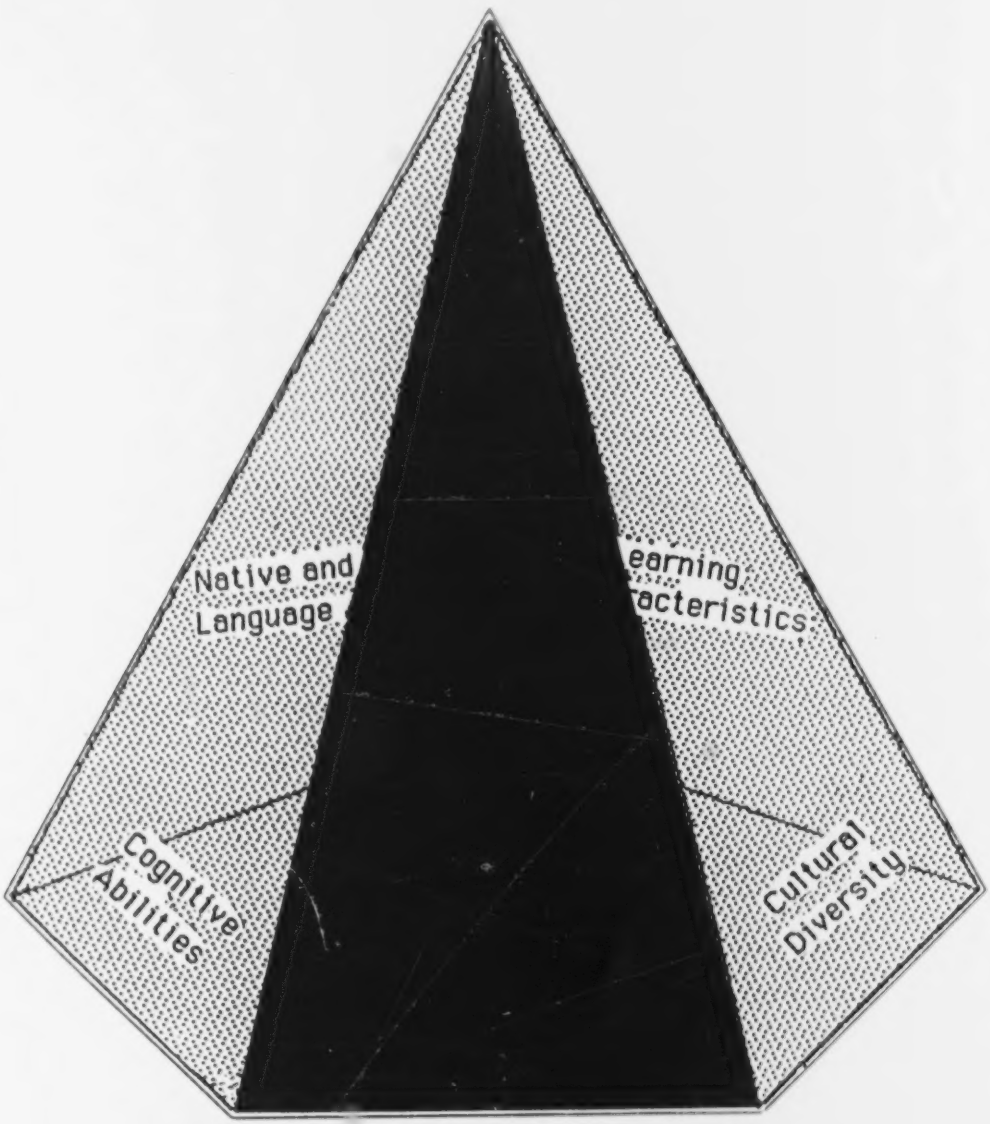

Figure 1. Multidimensional profile for the education of culturally and linguistically diverse handicapped students.

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Cognitive Abilities

Cognitive abilities constitute the third dimension of the profile. Cognitive development has been associated with active processes involved in thinking, imagining, generating plans and strategies, classifying, relating, ordering, symbolizing, inferring, and problem solving (Flavell, 1977; Reid, Knight-Arest, & Hresko, 1981; Rosser & Nicholson, 1984). In addition, research related to information processing modes (e.g., sequential or simultaneous processing), the use of cognitive strategies, and metacognitive abilities has influenced educational practices (Das, Kirby & Jarman, 1979; Mann & Sabatino, 1985).

Cognitive abilities of emotionally handicapped students have been discussed in terms of psychodynamic views, organic and neurological theories, and behavioral theories (Paul & Epanchin, 1982). Throughout the many views of cognition, however, individual differences have been found in the ability of students to process and use information and in the organization, interpretation, manipulation, and transformation of stimuli (Lerner, 1985; Torgesen, 1980). It is important for teachers to analyze the cognitive abilities of emotionally handicapped students from CLD backgrounds as well as their use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies throughout active learning and concept formation.

In addition to knowledge of the cognitive skills of handicapped learners, the cognitive abilities of bilingual students must be understood. Research has established the positive effect that bilingualism has on cognitive abilities. Bilingual students have demonstrated superior analytic and generalizational skills on linguistic and nonlinguistic tasks, can easily separate the sounds from the meaning of words (symbolic flexibility), can better analyze ambiguities in sentence structures than monolingual students, demonstrate greater skills involved with cognitive flexibility, and exhibit a metalinguistic awareness that leads to cognitive advantages (Ben-Zeev, 1984; DeAvila & Duncan, 1979; Hakuta, 1986).

Through this dimension of the profile, teachers must not only gather information on the various cognitive strengths of the students, but look at the relationship between the dimensions of native/second language and cognitive abilities. The level of language proficiency attained by bilingual children in their two languages has been studied as an important variable in the development of cognitive and academic skills. The attainment of a high level of proficiency in both languages (native-like fluency) has been found to lead to positive cognitive effects (Cummins, 1984). In addition, language skills that are needed for context-reduced, academically demanding situations have been found to transfer to a second language as they constitute abilities that underlie both languages (Cummins, 1984).

The cognitive abilities of the students, therefore, must be carefully analyzed in the development of appropriate educational programs. These abilities should be viewed in terms of the influence of both language and culture on the development of cognitive abilities of students who exhibit handicapping conditions.

Learning Characteristics

Another important dimension of the model is the learning process itself. Since it is difficult to pinpoint the specific processes needed to assimilate and process information, learning characteristics can be explored across cognitive tasks. These characteristics are the result of many other variables and interrelationships within the model, but add a vital dimension to the understanding of the child.

Learning characteristics have been discussed in terms of the characteristics of social learning theories (locus of control, expectancy for failure, and outerdirectedness); formal and informal learning; and the development of selective attention (Payne & Patton, 1981; Ross, 1976). Other important learning characteristics include: long and short memory; the transfer of information to new tasks and situations; rates of learning; interest and motivation; and preferred forms of feedback.

The particular cognitive style of the student must also be considered in light of learning characteristics. Determination of cognitive style preferences involves an analysis of personal behaviors centering around relationships with other students, the role the student expects from the teacher, the student's relationship with the teacher, preferred modes of gathering information and responding; and preferences for learning through global, analytic, individualistic or cooperative (personal/humanistic) strategies.

Educators must be aware of the individual learning characteristics and learning/cognitive style preferences of CLD emotionally handicapped students. This dimension of the profile affects not only the development of appropriate programs but also the effectiveness of instructional strategies used in the classroom.

Handicapping Condition – Strengths and Weaknesses

The fifth dimension of the multidimensional profile is the handicapping condition itself. For teachers of emotionally handicapped students, this dimension should be the most familiar. The manifestations of emotional disturbances may be exhibited throughout social psychological, educational, and behavioral parameters. In addition, students may exhibit these problems through a variety of patterns – representing characteristics that are manifested in different ways in different settings.

The teacher of emotionally handicapped students should consider aspects of affective/cognitive development among emotionally handicapped students so as to explore the relationships between specific behavior patterns and characteristics and other dimensions of the profile. The emotional and behavioral needs of the student play a vital role in the development of cognitive abilities, native/second language abilities, and the learning characteristics of the student. It is important that teachers consider the reciprocal relationships that exist among the dimensions of the profile as the characteristics and needs of emotionally handicapped students come into play.

Conclusion

The presented profile has provided an initial framework for teachers to explore the many factors and variables that influence the education of emotionally handicapped students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. These variables are not only intrinsic to understanding the nature of students themselves, but are vital to the development and implementation of individualized programs. Through the components of cultural diversity, native and second language abilities, cognitive abilities, learning characteristics, and behavioral/emotional factors, the student can be best understood and useful data obtained. The interrelationships of these components, however, must be further investigated in order to gain a better understanding of the teaching/learning process for each particular student.

At this point, the process has just begun. The depicted profile can only serve as a foundation to classroom learning and programming for diverse populations. It is important that the teacher match information from each of the profile components to individual tasks and instructional strategies in the classroom. It is through the successful matching of the multidimensional learner, the classroom environment, and the instructional methods/strategies that teachers will begin to meet the challenge of teaching CLD emotionally handicapped students through the development and implementation of appropriate programs.

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It is the goal of the ANYSEED organization to provide its membership with timely information and training as well as to act as an advocate, insuring the most efficient delivery of services possible to children handicapped by an emotional disturbance. To accomplish the above objective, ANYSEED uses membership fees and Annual Conference revenues to support our operations. The annual Membership fee of $20.00 remains the lowest of any professional organization. A five dollar fee is assessed for local chapter membership, with this sum returning to the local level to support their activities (i.e. mini-conferences, speakers, etc.) Early annual renewal allows us to keep membership rates low. Officers of the association are elected annually, and all volunteer their time to accomplish organizational activities. The membership year runs from September 1 through August 31. Tangible membership benefits include:

1. Quarterly issues of PERCEPTIONS from the State Association.
2. Periodic special interest mailings.
3. Reduced rates at the Annual State ANYSEED Conference.
4. Reduced rates at local chapter mini-conferences and topical workshops.
5. Legislative advocacy vis-a-vis State standards and regulations governing the handicapped.
6. Reduced rate copies of the Annual Conference Proceedings when published.

For further information concerning ANYSEED, feel free to contact the membership office.

Mr. Jim Burke
PREMM LEARNING CENTER
1200 Montauk Highway Oakdale, New York 11769

MOVING?

NOTICE — NOTICE — NOTICE

The ANYSEED Executive Board at their meeting on November 15th, 1985 voted unanimously to discontinue distribution of free issues of PERCEPTIONS to its mailing list and/or other interested persons. Future free distribution will be made ONLY to members of ANYSEED. This policy took effect with the first issue following the 1986 Special Conference Edition. The Board established a $5.00 per copy price for individual issue requests and a $20.00 annual subscription rate for this quarterly publication. Institutional subscription rates were set at $6.00 per individual issue or $24.00 per annual subscription. Subscription requests will be accepted in any year to commence with the Spring issue. Non-members wishing to continue their issues through subscription should complete the following form and return it with their remittance.

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PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

by Donald S. Marozas

Parents and professionals have not always worked well together (Fanning, 1977; McAfee & Vergason, 1979; Seligman & Seligman, 1980). The formation of the National Association for Retarded Citizens (NARC) has been attributed, in part, to parental frustration with professional apathy, indifference, and neglect (Roos, 1970, 1975). The passage and implementation of Public Law 94-142 has been regarded by some educators as a threat and a challenge from parents, and by others as an opportunity for parents and teachers to work together (Kroth, 1978).

In the past, parents of school age children have maintained a role in the educational system (McAfee & Vergason, 1979); however, in most cases their role was one of limited involvement (Fanning, 1977; Jenkins, Stephens & Sternberg, 1980; Yoshida & Gottlieb, 1977). Before P.L. 94-142, if parents were called into the school and informed that their child was going to be placed in a special class, they had little recourse but to accept the decision (Strenecky, McLoughlin & Edge, 1979). Obstacles to involvement have been created and parents have learned that a minimum amount of contact with their children's school is best (Feldman, Byalick & Rosendale, 1975). Some professionals have felt that since they are specially trained, only they can give expert opinions, thereby denegrating parental input (Seligman & Seligman, 1980). Yoshida, Fenton, Kaufman and Maxwell (1978) studied the attitudes of special educators towards parent involvement and found a firm resistance to meaningful input on educational planning. Kelly (1974) reported that many educators recommended that parent involvement be limited to conferences and warned against parent involvement in their children's educational programs. As a result, parents have been taught that the values and expertise of the educational system are more desirable than anything they have to offer (McAfee & Vergason, 1979). In addition, Kappelman and Ackerman (1977) stated that one of the main reasons parents feel shut out by the educational system is that they did not have a good relationship with their own school when they were students.

Some professionals consider parents more of a nuisance than a resource (Seligman & Seligman, 1980). Mattson (1977) identified lack of communication, time and education, as well as fear of the school, as reasons frequently verbalized by teachers for the noninvolvement of parents. However, Robinson (1979) believed that some teachers have an irrational fear of parents and the prospect of meeting them is threatening. Hofmeister and Reaves (1974) stated that educators have long tried to involve parents, but few professionals have looked upon parents as a major treatment resource.

In spite of these problems with parental involvement, research has supported parental participation in the education of exceptional children (Anderson, Schlottmann & Weiner, 1975; Clements & Alexander, 1975; Kelly, 1973; Kingsley, 1971; McKinnon, 1970). Concerned parents represent a valuable resource if a way can be found to effectively involve them (Hofmeister & Reaves, 1974). The 1972 Report of the President's Committee on Mental Retardation acknowledged the growing awareness of the need for parent participation (Appell & McKeen, 1974). In an indication of this awareness, Calvert (1971) reported that of the 179 proposals rejected under the Federal Handicapped Children's Early Education Assistance Act (P.L. 90-538) in the first year of funding, more than three-fourths were rejected for reasons related to inadequate parental participation in the proposed programs.

Proponents of parental involvement believe that the parent should be viewed as an active member of the educational team, sharing the responsibilities of providing an appropriate education for their handicapped children (Haskins, 1978; Poussaint, 1978). Studies have shown that parents can influence the development of their children (Baker & Heifetz, 1976; Brophy, 1970; Denhoff & Hyman, 1976; Haynes, 1976; Wiegerink & Parrish, 1976). In addition, parents are more likely to be therapeutically powerful because of their emotional attachment to their children and the amount of time they spend with them (Villani, 1980). McAleer (1978) stated the parents can assist teachers by working closely with them and reinforcing academic skills at home; Porcella (1980) also emphasized the need for consistency between the home and the school in order to maximize a child's potential. The assumption is that the more parents know about educational techniques and procedures, the more active they can be in the educational process (Kroth, 1978).

Like parents of other handicapped children, parents of emotionally disturbed children face many obstacles and frustrations including but not limited to the lack of available programs and services, problems in definition and the stigma associated with having their child labeled handicapped (Marion, 1981). When one considers the unique needs of emotionally disturbed children and their families, it would seem that parental involvement becomes all the more important. Unfortunately, the aforementioned review seems to indicate that educators are divided as to the type and degree of involvement parents should have.

Legislation calls for parental involvement; however, such guidelines do not assure that parents will take advantage of them (Shoemaker & Reid, 1980), nor do they assure that educators agree with the idea of parental involvement (McAfee & Vergason, 1978). Rather than depend on the passage of laws to ensure dialogue between parents and teachers (Kroth, 1978), teacher preparation programs should include specific competencies in counseling, listening skills, and communication techniques in their coursework (Lichter, 1976; Losen & Diament, 1978). While the law can specify involvement, it can not mandate the understanding and acceptance necessary for high quality involvement and communication (Adkins, 1975; Markel, 1978). In order to effectively implement parental involvement in handicapped children's education, both teachers and parents will have to develop new sensitivity skills and attitudes.

Submitted by:
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— ADVERTISE —

The ANYSEED Organization has been in existence for 21 years serving the needs of emotionally disturbed children and those teachers, as well as administrators, who serve this population. During the past two years ANYSEED has upgraded the quality of its quarterly publication *PERCEPTIONS* to journal status. It is now our intention to actively recruit advertisement to be printed within each edition. The advertisements will of course help our organization to defray the high costs of quality printing, but will likewise help agencies and businesses represent their programs, books, hardware, software, etc., to the extensive number of professionals upon our mailing lists which covers a 35 state range. One such advertisement which has appeared within the last two editions of *PERCEPTIONS* appears within this brochure. The Director of HARMONY HEIGHTS, Donald Lafayette, was so pleased that he immediately telephoned and asked the ad to be repeated indefinitely. Feel free to contact him for his reaction (516) 922-6688 which is reprinted here with permission.

In this age of information explosion and competition your advertisement 8 must yield results. Not only will your dollars stretch further with ANYSEED; you will target your information to those who you wish to reach for referrals, purchases, etc. *PERCEPTIONS* is printed quarterly in January, April, July and October. Advertisements for inclusion within any issue must be received by six weeks prior to the first day of the issue month.

For additional information or sample edition contact:

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CHANGING TIMES— IS ANYSEED CHANGING WITH THEM

ANYSEED was organized just previous to the enactment of legislation in NY State which mandated schools to provide services for emotionally disturbed children. The organization has grown and, to a degree, prospered as federal law (PL 94-142) has added requirements for specialized services for E.D. students. However, over the past three years public schools have been required to adopt a non-categoried model for organizing Special Ed. programs and prior to that NYS certification to teach most handicapped students became generic. This demphasis on labels and the companion assumption that skills for teaching mentally retarded, learning disabled and emotionally disturbed students are more similar than different brings us to a point where an organization such as ANYSEED must take stock of its place.

Is there a need for a group which has no public school classes to identify with, no teacher training programs specifically addressing the E.D. population and although the population is defined in regulations, the wording of that regulation specifically denies Special Ed. services to any student who does not demonstrate an "inability to learn." If a student is achieving academically, he is technically ineligible for classification as handicapped in NYS (Commissioner's decision).

Even the structure of the state education department office which oversees the implementating of the state and federal mandates has been reorganized to obscure any vestige of concern for specific disability groups. That office has a central core of staff which handles funding, works with private schools and conducts training programs around the state for CSE chairmen and other groups. Field work is handled out of regional offices and their primary mission is monitoring public and private schools in regards to state and federal regulations. Not one staff member in S.E.D. is identified as a specialist in any specific category of handicap. It is as though there are now no critical differences or distinctions between the needs of the retarded, the learning disabled or the severely disturbed students in our society in general or schools in particular.

But before we lament the apparent passing of an era and prematurely gather to administer the last rites to a dead but not buried organization, let's consider some of what's going on in our schools today.

Part of what's going on is a matter of statistics, not semantics. There are increasing numbers of children who are suicidal. There are more referrals for psychological evaluations. There are increasing levels of expectations for academic achievement. The Regents Action Plan is almost ready to demonstrate its full impact. And people who live and work where that plan must be implemented know what it is doing to (not for) the marginal student. Drugs continue to be a concern—more complicated problems being evidenced earlier and earlier.

The push to keep mildly handicapped students in their home schools, in Resource Room programs, integrated into the regular school programs, has gained great acceptance from all quarters. Philosophically, the concept has merit. Upon closer examination the Emperors new clothes may indeed show us less than meets the eye. What is documentable is not that students are achieving more with less stigmata but that Special Ed. teachers are frequently being asked to do more with less. Inadequate supervision, less support service, and frequently less than an adequate teaching station in which to work are not atypical characteristics of many public school programs.

What do the programs have in common, regardless of the age of the student, the mix of categories, the location of the room? The common thread is that the students have management needs. They are academically deficient but more critically, they are defeated, deflated and dysfunctional in many areas more important than spelling and arithmetic.

Courts are increasingly reluctant to remove children from their homes and, conversely, deinstitutionalization is still public policy. Thus, more and more children in crisis are being kept in the community or placed back into the community and the public schools are expected to create programs for them. The fascination that several groups have with the idea of the neighborhood school being the "least restrictive environment" should soon be wearing out. Clearly it is not the place many E.D. children belong and unless there is some enlightened advocacy forthcoming soon, we will continue to see ever increasing numbers ill-served or underserved.

Until issues of quality can be addressed with a concern and vigor equal to concerns for quantity, Special Education will continue to represent a movement recognizable primarily for its diagnostic labels, class size and age range regulations, specialized certifications, categorized funding, and characterized by an endless procession of due process and statutory issues which dictate day to day decisions made for, rather than by, classroom teachers.

Someone must stand up for the student in a system which purports that demonstrating academic competence disqualifies one from eligibility for Special Education services. This myopic view of mental health as a mere adjunct to the services schools are charged to provide is further underlined when one views the disparity between the elaborate guidance plans school districts in NY State are mandated to adopt and the actual level of implementation which must be demonstrated. Most schools offer little or no individual guidance services at the elementary level and the preponderance of high school guidance is still devoted to securing placements in appropriate colleges for those who will be leaving the community. Support services for severely stressed students are lacking and Boards of Education, administrators, and even parents do not appear concerned.

So. . .where does this leave us? Who will stand up for the student? How do we mold a membership of generalists into educators of the emotionally disturbed? Should we? If we should, then shouldn't we also push S.E.D. and the legislature with the same type of vigor demonstrated by the founders of ANYSEED who were so successful in obtaining recognition and services for the emotionally disturbed? There are voices which say our course has been run and that we ought to go the route of so many other would be specialists (i.e. merge as a subdivision of CCBD under the overall leadership of CEC). One thing is for certain—we need your support if we are to remain independent and representative of a speciality. How, you ask? That response is so simple—by phoning or writing the President (address within PERCEPTIONS). You can bet on a speedy response! ANYSEED needs commitment and involvement—YOURS.

Submitted by:
Early President of ANYSEED

Editor's Note: Responses to the viewpoint represented within the above article are solicited.

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